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PUPIL PROGRESS IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
OF QUINCY, MASSACHUSETTS

Thesis

submitted by

Robert Hamilton

B.S.E., Fitchburg State Teachers College, 1935

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree Master of Education

1946

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the grade in 1940, a loss of 42.8 per cent.

A. THE PROBLEM

in discovery of the problem. To discover whether such a small percentage of pupils completed the cycle from first to sixth grades in six years within the building in which they started their school careers, the writer undertook a survey to find answers to two main questions:

(1) How, in 1940, were the children who entered the first grades of Quincy in 1940?

(2) If the pupils were not in the sixth grade of the building in which they entered first grade in 1940, to what extent had retardation and transfer affected them?

Discovery of the answer. Much research has been done on

CHAPTER I

PRELIMINARY PROCEDURES

In September of 1940, one thousand, one hundred seven children entered the first grades in the various elementary schools of Quincy, Massachusetts, and in September of 1945, with normal progress, those pupils should have been members of the various sixth grades of the Quincy School System. Selecting one elementary school, the writer found, however, that of the forty children who entered the first grade in that building in 1940, only fifteen were actually members of that school's sixth grade in 1945, a loss of 62.5 per cent.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the problem. To discover whether such a small percentage of pupils completed the cycle from first to sixth grades in six years within the building in which they started their school careers, the writer undertook a survey to find answers to two main questions:

(1) Where, in 1945, were the children who entered the first grades of Quincy in 1940?

(2) If the pupils were not in the sixth grade of the building in which they entered first grade in 1940, to what extent had retardation and transfer affected them?

Purpose of the study. Much research has been done on

the subject of pupil progress and many of the improved administrative practices of our public schools have resulted from the findings. Most research in this field has usually singled out a specific field, such as marking, grouping, reports to parents, or pupil classification.

This survey in the area of pupil progress attempted to stay removed from such fields, and rather concentrated on simply following the actual year by year progress of one selected group of pupils, showing changes in its make-up, reasons for changes, and some of the unseen and perhaps un-noticed problems found in year by year turn-over of pupils.

Findings from such a survey would undoubtedly shed light on some of the problems that do exist in elementary schools that regulate pupil progress by grade standards, and would give a clearer picture of past happenings on which to base possible revisions for betterment of learning conditions in the Quincy School System.

II. SCOPE OF THE SURVEY

City-wide survey. In order that such a survey would present a definite picture for the whole city, the writer included the entire entering classes of 1940, made up of the first grade children from the eighteen elementary schools. All schools were included so that trends of progress in the different schools might be noted and areas presenting the greatest problem,

or problems peculiar to an area, marked. Then, too, in making such a survey city-wide and in presenting complete data, the writer hoped to set up a pattern for other systems desirous of investigating similar problems.

No solutions to any problems were attempted, but rather the survey centered around the investigation of progress of one group of children within the elementary level, hoping that such a survey would uncover un-noticed areas of difficulty to help members of the Quincy School System better understand learning conditions.

In setting forth the results of the survey the writer included:

- (1) Research on factors interfering with normal progress which the writer felt were applicable to Quincy.
- (2) Presentation of data gathered in the survey.
- (3) Summary and conclusions.

Limitations of the survey. Many of the findings in the survey were naturally limited to the city of Quincy, although in some instances applicable to other systems.

For the children who left the city between entrance in the first and the sixth grades, complete records were not available; hence, the survey was limited to the records of those children who did remain in the schools of Quincy.

In carrying out the investigation, the author found a great deal lacking in the storage of records, filing, and main-

tenance of accurate, adequate records. Procedures in the keeping and filing of records varied from school to school. The "Elementary Record System, White Office Record Card", while of much value, was definitely limited as a cumulative record. Because of these conditions, some items that would have proven of interest in the survey were omitted.

Sources of information. In obtaining data for the survey, the Massachusetts School Registers for 1940, 1941, 1942, 1943, 1944, and 1945 were used to compile the names of the pupils who entered in 1940, and to check the pupils still in the system in the various sixth grades in 1945, the normal sixth year for this class.

The Elementary School Record System Cards, commonly called, White Office Record Cards, were used to discover the locations of pupils not on the 1945 registers; new schools to which such pupils had moved; grades in which pupils had been retarded; and intelligence quotients of the retarded pupils.

The "Annual Reports of the School Department of the City of Quincy, Massachusetts", for the years 1940, 1941, 1942, 1943, and 1944 were used for some of the statistics quoted.

Determining pupils still in the system. Not having cumulative records in the elementary schools, the data needed had to be secured in a rather cumbersome way. Each elementary school was visited and on separate sheets of graph paper, names of boys and girls in the first grades in 1940 were listed. The

sixth grade Massachusetts Registers of 1945 were then checked against these lists to establish the pupils who were then in the sixth grades of the same schools in which they started in 1940. Omission of names on the 1945 registers meant one of two things; either the pupils had been retarded, or they had moved. To segregate the two groups, the white office record cards of "Pupils Present in 1945", within each building, were scanned to find those pupils who had been retarded, but were still in the same building in which they started first grade. Finally, the white office record cards of "Past Pupils" were examined in order to trace the pupils who had moved. From these cards, it was possible to verify whether the pupils had moved from the city or were within other schools in the Quincy system. If the latter were true, the additional records were obtained from the files of the schools to which the pupils had moved. To complete the tabulations of the individual records, it was thus necessary to visit each school many times.

Massachusetts School Registers in the intervening years of 1941, 1942, 1943, 1944 were used to find the total number of different pupils enrolled within each grade as the selected class of 1940 went through its six years.

Overview of the Quincy School System. The following general statistics are given to present to the reader an over-all view of the system into which the class of 1940 entered.

"Quincy, Massachusetts, an industrial city of 75,810 has

a unified school system in which an earnest effort is made to maintain a school program that is educationally sound and progressive, to provide special attention to the needs and problems of individual children, and to ensure continuity in the progress of a child through the school system."/1

The school program, in 1940, was set up on a six - three - three basis. At that time, there were, in the public school system, eighteen elementary schools, four junior high schools, and two high schools. One high school was a combination of junior and senior high units. In addition, there was a state-aided trade school for boys.

There were classes for the mentally retarded, and a class for the physically handicapped. Other special instructional services included home teaching and the teaching of lip-reading.

The health program included routine health service rendered by school nurses and physicians, medical examinations, audiometer and telebinocular testing, and physical fitness examinations for physical education classes or remedial groups.

Special services in the field of pupil personnel and adjustment included a Counselling Service in the junior and senior high schools, and an Adjustment Service to which cases presenting special problems or needs were referred from all grades. Through the Adjustment Service, use was made of special provi-

1. Government and Community Organizations of Quincy, (City of Quincy, Massachusetts, 1940) p. 17

sions and services outside the school system. There was close cooperation with social agencies and the courts.

The total school population for the year 1940 was 13,802 of which 10,336 were in the elementary schools.

Of a total of 485 teachers, 190 were members of the elementary units.

Results of a study of retention in first year of the public school system, setting forth the causes that the writer believed responsible for the failure of many primary pupils to progress normally were made in 1931, from 1930 to 1940.

Retention, the cause of the most serious of school problems, has been a matter of study since 1906 with Gaskell, Superintendent of Schools of New York City, giving attention to the large number of average pupils in New York City schools. The first real analysis of progress of children from grade to grade was done by Leonard P. Ayres in 1909, the results of which were published in his study, "Laggards in Our Schools,"¹ since that time much research has been done on the problem, and all have left the very definite conclusion that a conventional practice is less educational than failure yet no feature of the public education is more widely practiced.

Typical of the more recent research done on the subject of non-promotion were the following conclusions obtained by Gaskell

¹ See also, Leonard P. Ayres, *Laggards in Our Schools*, Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1909, 227 pp.

CHAPTER II

FACTORS CAUSING RETARDATION IN PROGRESS

While many factors may bar the normal progress of pupils most of them, singularly or collectively, produce the greatest deterrent, that of non-promotion, and so this second chapter consists of a summary of research on that phase of the progress problem, setting forth the causes that the writer believed were responsible for the failure of many Quincy pupils to progress normally from Grades I to VI, from 1940 to 1945.

Non-promotion, the center of the whole problem of pupil progress, has been a matter of study since 1904 when William H. Maxwell, Superintendent of Schools of New York City, brought attention to the large numbers of over-age pupils in New York City schools. The first real analysis of progress of children from grade to grade was done by Leonard P. Ayres in 1909, the results of which were published in his study, "Laggards in Our Schools".¹ Since that time much research has been done on the problem, and all have left the very definite conclusion that no educational practice is less educative than failure yet no feature of the public education is more widely practiced.

Typical of the more recent research done on the scope of non-promotion were the following conclusions obtained by Caswell

1. Leonard P. Ayres, Laggards in Our Schools, (Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1909) 236 pp.

in his extensive analysis of non-promotion in elementary schools in 1933. Data were secured for seven states and thirty-seven cities:

- "(a) The rate of nonpromotion in different cities and states varies widely. The range probably approximates 2 per cent to 20 per cent.
- (b) The average rate of nonpromotion for all grades approximates 10 per cent.
- (c) There appear to be regional differences in the extent of the use of nonpromotion.
- (d) Schools in the same systems differ widely in the extent to which they employ nonpromotion, the difference in rate being as high as 30 per cent.
- (e) The rate of nonpromotion is significantly higher in Grade I than in other grades.
- (f) The rate of nonpromotion in B sections of grades tends to be higher than in A sections of grades.
- (g) The rate of nonpromotion is higher for boys than for girls.
- (h) In general, the amount of nonpromotion has been somewhat lowered during recent years. The major characteristics of the practice, however, as pointed out more than thirty years ago, exist today in numerous schools. As these characteristics indicated an unsolved problem at that time, they suggest the persistence of the problem."/2

Further findings were shown in the conclusions of Saunders in his general analysis of the status of non-promotion practices in 1941:

- "(a) The evidence from five state reports shows that the problem of nonpromotion persists in elementary schools, although with varying degrees of intensity.

2. H.L.Caswell, Education in the Elementary School (New York: American Book Company, 1942) p. 263.

- (b) Reports from seven cities indicate that the problem of nonpromotion persists in these cities. It is judged that had data been available, the problem would have been revealed as persisting in the majority of school systems.
- (c) Three recent school surveys revealed the persistence of the problem.
- (d) Comparison for six school systems of rates of nonpromotion in elementary schools over a twenty-year interval revealed that the rates had decreased but that the practice still persists to a considerable extent."/3

I. FACTORS LEADING TO NON-PROMOTION

Low entrance age. The low minimum entrance age of the Quincy Schools, together with its practice of admitting children on tests of mental ability, does contribute greatly to its high percentage of first grade failures. Age requirements specified in the "Rules of the School Committee" Chapter XI, Section 2 are:

"Any child who is five years, five months of age on or before September 1 may be admitted to the first grade any time prior to October 1. Any child who is five years three months of age September 1, and whose mental age, as determined by means of standard tests, is five years, eight months or more, and whose physical condition is satisfactory, may be admitted to the first grade."/4

The low entrance age was caused by the abolition of semi-annual promotions and entrances in 1929 at which time, the school committee voted to set the September entrance age as that of the normal January entering class. Due to a fear of public protest

3. Carleton M. Saunders, Promotion or Failure for the Elementary School Pupil? (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941) p.7

4. "Rules of the School Committee". (City of Quincy, Massachusetts, 1930) p. 18

against the raising of the minimum entering age, the rather detrimental condition has been allowed to continue.

Establishment of kindergartens would do much to solve the problem of caring for so many pupils too immature to successfully carry on the work of the first grade.

Inadequate mental ability. Intelligence, or the ability to learn, is a most important factor in successful school progress. The less mentally capable children, unable to keep pace with the curriculum, cause the greatest per cent of retardation in schools where learning rate is ignored. The problem is not that the dull child cannot learn, but rather that he cannot learn at the normal rate nor probably in the same way as the child of normal ability. The factor of relative ability to learn must be considered if failure is to be prevented.

The dependence of reading success on intelligence was reported by Margaret Ladd,⁵ showing that the outstanding difference between the best and poorest readers appeared in mental ability as measured both by non-verbal and verbal tests. For the good readers, the average Intelligence Quotient on the verbal tests was 121, and on the non-verbal tests, 131.5. For the poor readers, the results were: verbal, 84, and non-verbal, 109.

5. Margaret Ladd, "The Relation of Social, Economic, and Personal Characteristics to Reading Ability," Contributions to Education, No. 582, New York, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933.

In the Chicago Survey,⁶ it was estimated that at least 4.7 per cent of the school population were so mentally handicapped as to require special educational treatment.

Much failure could be eliminated by better recognition of pupil-learning limitations and better adjustment of work to meet the child's ability to learn.

Personality and emotional problems. Influences other than immaturity or below normal mental ability on the progress of pupils are shown by the frequent failure of children with normal or above normal intellectual ability. Personality and emotional problems very often crop up in typical classes of pupils, as shown by Street:

"Of the total number of school failures studied, fourteen per cent failed because of personality difficulties. Fear reactions dominated these children. Contributing factors were lowered physical resistance, parental conflicts, and gang influences."⁷

Readiness to learn. The first grades of Quincy offer a serious problem to the teachers and principals of the elementary schools. With a low minimum entering age, admission of pupils on mental tests, and lack of public kindergartens, a program of readiness testing and a program that will allow adjustment to the needs of the majority and suitable provision for

6. Chicago Survey, "Educational Status Report of the Survey of the Schools of Chicago, Illinois", Vol. II, pp. 94-96, 1932.

7. R.F. Street, "Factors Related to Maladjustment in School", Elementary School Journal, Vol. XXXIV, pp. 676-680, 1934.

those who are extreme variants are needed. "Readiness", that time when a child can enter into learning activities with meaning, interest, and the probability of achieving success, should be recognized, particularly in the field of reading, yet little provision is made for it in Quincy where many immature pupils, not ready for introduction to formal learning, are yearly allowed to enter first grade.

The place of reading readiness in the entering groups is well summarized by Lee and Lee:

"Progress has been made in the recognition and development of reading readiness. The tendency to locate those children who are not ready to read when they enter the first grade is increasing. To force reading instruction on many children only results in retarding the child's development rather than accelerating it. The child learns little reading, and is very apt to develop a dislike for it as well as an attitude of failure and a lessening of self-confidence. In many cases these handicaps persist through-out the remainder of school. In many places this realization has broken down the idea that the child must spend his time in first grade learning to read, and that no matter what the situation the teacher was to teach reading. At the same time, those children who are ready to learn to read should be given the opportunity.

Every primary teacher should be familiar with some of the suggestions for developing readiness. Examples from current practice such as having children laboriously filling pages of scratch paper by copying letters, or children in a slum district matching pictures of white cherries with the words are indicative that many teachers are a long way from an understanding of the principles underlying the development of readiness."/8

Repression by formal methods. Emotional and personality

8. J.M.Lee and D.M.Lee, The Child and His Curriculum, (D.Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1940) p.341.

problems are bound to occur where disciplinarian teachers, with no understanding of child development, demand and expect complete quiet, conformity to all her stringent rules, and complete dominance of her class at all times. Resentment of teacher, school, and all learning are natural by-products.

Burton concludes:

"The old-fashioned 'practical' teacher creates much of the disorder in her room by her hard-boiled comments upon and punishments for anything and everything which happens in the room. Children full of energy are not going to sit still and refrain from communication no matter what the punishments. Good teaching and routines will eliminate all but a minimum of disorder. Whispering, minor horseplay, dropping of books, and the like will go on under the best conditions. Parents and teachers who believe that children can be forced to be otherwise should note that no one has ever accomplished it in several thousand years. The harsh and brutal schools of yester-year completely failed. The modern school with a meaningful program accepts and utilizes this surplus energy. The school must accept childhood and youth as it is and progressively develop controls and responsibility in keeping with developing maturity."/9

Burton also points out the following general procedures in developing self-control:

- "1. Provide a desirable learning situation which is adapted to the pupil needs and maturity.
 - a. Provide a good modern curriculum and teaching method which invite the pupil into many diverse learning activities.
 - b. Provide an attractive physical setting for learning.
 - c. Adjust all details of materials and activities to the individual differences in need, ability, and social maturity. Pupils cannot learn what they cannot learn and will turn to other activities if school

9. William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities (New York: D.Appleton-Century Company, 1944) P.577.

activities are not sensible to them.

- d. Provide challenge, however, within this adjustment to ability and experience. Too easy tasks antagonize as do too difficult ones. Challenging ones invite vigorous effort which precludes opportunity for disorder.
- e. Provide for recognition for success in these challenging tasks. Invite pupil participation in evaluating.
- f. Utilize a wide variety of teaching techniques and devices.
- g. Invite pupil participation in planning the development of learning situations.
- h. Provide, wherever possible, new-type furniture especially in the lower grades.

2. Provide supplementary activities and materials, particularly reading materials and construction projects related to the assignment or unit. Take advantage of all related extra-curricular activities.

3. Mechanize all routine factors which are susceptible to mechanization.

4. Invite the cooperative participation of pupils in all phases of the learning situation including the maintenance of order.

5. Maintain a friendly, informal, approachable, but organized, business-like manner at all times.

6. Maintain a positive and constructive attitude. Use 'do' in place of 'don't'. Give the pupil experience with and practice in the desirable conduct patterns.

7. Develop criteria for determining which incidents may be safely ignored, which may be corrected informally and in a moment, which show a need for more organized guidance, and which mean that the pupil needs to be segregated for punishment."/10

Home backgrounds. Quincy has a wide divergence in economic status in its school neighborhoods with extremes of very fine and very poor home backgrounds. Since much of the retardation of progress in Quincy Schools exists in areas of poor economic status, the following effects of such a condition on

pupils' success in school pointed out by Burton are pertinent:

"Low economic status of many homes often results in:

1. Lack of education resulting in parental antagonism toward school and in lack of cooperation, resulting in truancy and absence.
2. Necessity to supplement family income involving work after school, resulting in fatigue.
3. Stress and strain within family group owing to economic security.
4. Absence of books and magazines, library cards, travel experiences, and other cultural items.
5. Malnutrition.
6. Frequent moves in search of employment resulting in change in schools and gaps in schooling.
7. Lack of protection from disease, lack of glasses or other physical aids.
8. Lack of quiet place to study."/11

Lack of records for guidance. One of the severest lacks in the guidance of pupils in Quincy has been the absence of any type of cumulative record in the elementary grades. No child, other than the repeating pupil, has had the advantage of having his teachers know how much he had accomplished the previous year and being given work to carry him farther from that point. Valuable time each fall has had to be used in reviews to "get acquainted." Guidance at the elementary level needs the cumulative record.

Ruth Strang summarizes the values of cumulative records as follows:

"The value of records in the development and guidance of individuals may be briefly summarized under four main headings:

1. Cumulative records provide information about each pupil at the beginning of the term. Through the

11. Ibid., p. 577.

knowledge thus obtained, the teacher may prevent poor adjustment. Records are especially important in the one-room rural school where there is a frequent change of teachers. Unless permanent records have been kept, all the careful study of individuals that one teacher has done is lost when he moves on to another school.

2. Cumulative records supply systematic information. Valuable as a good teacher's knowledge of his pupils is, there are gaps and deficiencies in it that are supplied by the more systematic study of the individual.

3. In the cumulative record, many facts about the individual pupil are spread out for the teacher to judge and interpret and evaluate, unbiased by failure to remember some especially significant circumstance or by overemphasis on a recent or especially annoying occurrence.

4. The cumulative record gives a basis for the constructive development not only of the problem cases but of every pupil. This use of records in the making of provision for individual needs and capacities is the only justification for them. Records are for the pupil. They are never an end in themselves. They are a means of accomplishing the teacher's main task - the best development of every member of his class.

5. The social cumulative record should be used more widely in placement offices, for it supplies information based on long-continued observation of boys and girls at work and at play. Information of this kind cannot be obtained in a brief interview and testing period. If properly kept, the cumulative record folder helps each person discover the kind of contribution he can make best to the work of the world in times of war and in times of peace.

The kind of record suggested in this pamphlet is a co-operative enterprise of teacher, pupil, parent, and others who know the pupil as an individual. The pupil not only contributes information to the record folder but also derives inspiration and direction through his own study of the records in conference with the teacher. Thus, the records become a means of self-direction of the pupils.

Although it has been emphasized that records are for the pupil, they may also contribute to the professional growth of teachers. By directing the teacher's attention to the individual pupils, cumulative records help to

develop the personnel point of view in teachers. In so far as a cumulative record system is based on a sound philosophy of education, it demands of teachers an intelligent and sympathetic study of their pupils. Every teacher has the opportunity to 'appraise the youth' and help to unfold for him a happy and successful future."/12

Billett emphasizes the value of records in dealing with problem cases. The same values hold true for normal children:

"The individual child must be a known quantity if successful provisions are to be made for his particular needs. This fact is emphasized by efforts at the scientific study of pupils who have become problem cases. Moreover, the collection of accurate and comprehensive data concerning every pupil and the filing of these data for frequent and ready use are fundamental to all features of a program to provide for individual differences. In outstanding schools each pupil's interests, special aptitudes, aims, heredity, home environment, health history, school history, and many other significant characteristics and accomplishments both physical and mental are known and a matter of record. In such schools serious problem cases occur infrequently, but when they do occur the data are ready at hand for a preliminary case study."/13

Meeting individual differences. Unless provisions for meeting individual differences are made by the teacher in her planning, grouping, and teaching, and by the administration in its curricula, failures are sure to result. It is an impossibility to treat children alike for in every class in public schools, the teacher is up against the problem so aptly described by Arnold Gesell in his "Child Classification and Child

12. Ruth Strang, Every Teacher's Records (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1942) p. 39

13. Roy O. Billett, "Provisions for Individual Differences, Marking and Promotion," Office of Education, Department of the Interior, Bulletin No. 17, 1932, Monograph No. 13

Hygiene":

"No two children are exactly alike. There are the tall and the short, brunettes and blondes, blue-eyed and black-eyed, brilliant and stupid, some are ready spellers while others are almost hopeless blunderers, some are born mathematicians while others cannot progress beyond the merest rudiments. One child can memorize with the greatest ease, while another can never repeat a quotation and always bungles the multiplication table. Some children learn to read with no apparent effort and others monopolize most of the time of expert teachers and then stumble over the simplest material. One may expect to find at least one child feeble-minded; one child who stutters; two or three who seriously lisp; another extremely anaemic; a badly spoilt child; another babyish - a year or two retarded in mental or moral growth; and still another morally weak."/14

Caswell points out that:

"It is the function of education to seek out the most promising potentialities of every child and to cultivate these potentialities with special care. The ability, however limited in scope and importance, to do some things better than the rank and file is one of the most important contributions to sound personality development. The school should seek to discover for each child something in which he can excel rather than to concentrate so exclusively on trying to bring everyone up to an unattainable average in chosen abilities. This is not to argue that we should be content with less than the best a child is able to accomplish in abilities upon which he is greatly dependent in modern life. It is, rather, to insist that when all achieve to their highest capacities under education, differences will increase, and that in this situation it is of particular importance for personality development that everyone have some area of special competence, however limited in scope."/15

The curriculum. In Lee and Lee "The Child and His Cur-

14. Arnold Gesell, Child Classification and Child Hygiene, (Transactions of Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene, 1913, Volume IV) p. 315

15. H.L.Caswell, Education in the Elementary School. (New York: American Book Company, 1942) p. 102

riculum", the authors state:

"The curriculum is considered to be the actual experiences of each pupil which are affected by the school. Experiences should be so selected and guided as:

1. To result in socialized human beings.
2. To give consideration to the health and physical development of children.
3. To make provision for the individual differences in children.
4. To be suitable to the maturation level of the child.
5. To meet the needs, purposes, and interests of the children.
6. To be educative rather than mis-educative.
7. To enlarge the childrens' understandings of important concepts.
8. To aid in the development of new meanings and expand experiences through the utilization of previous meanings.
9. To develop new meanings through adaptation to the needs of the local community, utilization of available local resources, compensation where possible for environmental lacks, and participation in a wide variety of environmental situations.
10. To utilize some important aspect of thinking.
11. To make possible successful achievement by the child."/16

Because the Quincy School System has no organized curriculum in the elementary grades at the present time, the textbooks serving as a guide, the writer has included the following contrast between the old and new in education, taken from Lee and Lee:

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN OLD AND NEW PROCEDURES

Old

New

A. Goals

1. Preparation for the
1. Making the most of

16. J.M.Lee and D.M.Lee, The Child and His Curriculum, (New York, D.Appleton-Century Co. 1940) p. 173

future

2. Facts and skills taught which were necessary
3. Passing on the cultural heritage
4. Withdrawn from community
5. Static aims and materials

living

2. Facts and skills used to contribute to the total development of children
3. Understanding and control of present-day personal and social needs
4. Utilizes resources of community
5. Acquaintance with a changing world

B. Learning

6. Dictated, prescribed, and controlled learning by text and teacher
7. Assigning, questioning, and evaluating by teacher
8. Acquisition of skills and abilities by isolated drill
9. Learning through studying about life
10. Things to be learned selected according to sequence in subject
6. Learning through experiences involving planning, self-direction, discovery, exploration, and thinking
7. Self-assignments, discussion of findings, and evaluation of own work by children
8. Acquisition of skills and abilities as a result of a need or a lack
9. Learning through active participation in group and community living
10. Things to be learned selected according to maturation of children

C. Organizing Experiences

11. Course organized into highly specialized subjects
12. Courses tended to be worked out in advance
13. Courses utilized only intellectual materials of highly academic type
11. Subject lines are being broken down and organization is taking place around broad fields or functional areas
12. Planned in advance but with much opportunity for pupil participation and direction
13. All types of experiences are utilized, visual aids, radio, community resources

14. Definite distinction between curricular and extracurricular activities

14. All experiences affected by the school are part of the curriculum

D. Discipline

15. Imposition from above, rigid and passive

15. Expression and cultivation of individuality in a working situation

16. External discipline

16. Control inherent in the social situation in which all are working for a common purpose

17. Competitive, striving to beat one's associates

17. Cooperation with others to achieve a common purpose

E. Administrative Procedures

18. Concerned with efficient routine

18. Aid to improving the educational experiences of children

19. Scheduling in small inflexible blocks of time

19. Scheduling in longer flexible blocks of time

20. Adherence to definite class divisions

20. Flexible grouping of pupils /17

As pointed out in the Houston, Texas report:

"The curriculum should be so constructed that it exemplifies the principle that every child has a right to succeed. The lack of adaptation of the curriculum to the needs, and therefore to the interests and capacities of the child results in retardation." /18

Grade standards. The traditional school basing promotion on grade standards imposes a minimum grade standard of achievement which must be reached by all children before they pass to the next grade. In such a set-up, the elementary school is de-

17. Ibid. pp. 174-175

18. Curriculum Revision and Development, Houston, Texas, 1931, p. 27

fined in the "Ninth Yearbook" of the National Educational Association:

"The elementary school is an institution which takes children of varying physical and intellectual capacities who are approximately six years of age, and requires them to reach certain minimum standards of educational accomplishment before they are promoted to the junior high school. Unless they are of average ability or above, this may involve seven, eight, or more years of attendance in the elementary school; and promotion to junior high school at the age of thirteen, fourteen, or older."/19

Burton describes failure in the elementary grades in the traditional school as follows:

"Failure of the pupil to achieve within a given time limit, a level of subject-matter mastery or skill arbitrarily designated by adults. Such standards are usually set without regard for, often in defiance of, the known facts about the learner and his learning processes, the known facts about individual differences."/20

Burton criticizes such failures thusly:

"The majority of pupil 'failures' in the traditional school are not truly pupil failures at all but failure of the school, or of the home, or of some other factor. Failure of the school is clearly seen when it 'fails' to adjust to the known inescapable facts concerning the nature of the learners, his needs and purposes, and his learning process. Changes need to be made in the philosophy and aims of those in charge of the system, in the curriculum, in the methods of teaching, in guidance and counseling. Sometimes the fault lies not with the school but with the home which fails to supply favorable study conditions, fails to maintain an attitude favorable to education, fails to insist on study habits, hygienic living, proper nutrition, etc. The fault may lie with the general economic status which necessitates work

19. National Education Association of the United States, Department of Superintendence, "Ninth Yearbook, Five Unifying Factors in American Education", Washington, D.C., 1931, p. 79

20. Burton, op. cit., p. 449

during out-of-school hours, which makes mal-nutrition inescapable. Other community factors contribute."/21

With no desire to recommend, the writer calls attention to the following description of the Child Progress Plan in Cleveland reported by Buckley to show one way in which the barrier of grade standards has been met:

"It was agreed in 1932 to remove grade labels and arbitrary requirements from 'Z' pupils in grades one to six, inclusive. If a 'Z' pupil set out for Chicago and made only half the journey in the prescribed semester, it was decided to permit him to proceed toward Chicago without receiving an 'F' and without requiring him to return to Cleveland before trying the journey again.

It is not an exaggeration to state that the removal of the artificial grade barriers from 'Z' pupils not only resulted in a steady improvement in the mastery of subject matter but also, more important, replaced resentment, depression, and discouragement with hope and confidence, because possible success replaced inevitable failure. Success must wait upon and be in proportion to capacity and interest.

Grade labels have been so branded on the minds of parents and some teachers that it seems incredible to them that Lincoln became president without ever being in a grade or having a report card. Many have held that grade labels are indispensable.

After six years' experience with the new 'Z' program, the principals and supervisors concurred with the judgment of able classroom teachers and voted almost unanimously to remove the arbitrary and artificial grade barrier from the entire primary division, - - - including kindergarten through grade three. Most of the subject fields and activities, especially English, had been developed by levels or units of progress in the curriculum centers so that little difficulty has been experienced insofar as the children's learning is concerned.

An occasional parent does insist that he fully compre-

21. Burton, op. cit., p. 450-451

hends his child if the school labels him 3B, even though he reads miserably, can't sing, is lacking in artistic ability and won't play with others.

Five years of experimentation with the Child Progress Plan in Cleveland have demonstrated that children can live, learn, and grow during the primary school period of from three to five years, develop a variety of interests and abilities, progress at varying rates, enrich and integrate wholesome personalities on all ability levels and for every step of progress, all without so much grade labeling, marking, passing, failing, and making comparisons with a neighbor's child as formerly.

The plan emphasizes the individual child but it does not assume that children are so radically different that they have no common interests or that group work is unprofitable. A few pupils may complete the program of the primary division in three years, a majority in four years, while a considerable number is benefitted by five years. Progress should be continuous and every step of progress should be recognized whether it be made in November, March, or any other month. Rushing along to January and June to determine whether a pupil has made progress is as unnecessary as it is artificial and undesirable. First grade, second grade, and so on are levels that are too gross, vague, and arbitrary for primary pupils. They are convenient for reports, statistics, and estimating revenues but are inelastic and indefinite for recognizing and recording the progress of children.

Thus has the Child Progress Plan of Cleveland brought out many interesting facts relative to the need for recognizing individual differences in children and for assisting those who under other conditions would be simply branded as failures. It has built its success on educating children around their strengths instead of their weaknesses."/22

Marking. Somebody once said that nothing, not even New England weather, varied as much as teachers' marks, and yet in most of our schools, teachers' marks are the basis for progress

22. H.M.Buckley, "Combating the Problem of Failures", The Nation's Schools, Vol. 32, No. 5, November, 1943

or retardation.

"The causes of variability in teachers' marks are legion. Some teachers believe that marks should represent achievement only, while others believe that the attitude of the student, the effort which he puts forth, the improvement which he shows over a given period, and his deportment should be considered. Teachers' judgments vary as to the relative difficulty or value of questions asked. Teachers also disagree on what constitutes a correct answer. Standards of achievement for each of the school grades differ from one course of study to another and from one teacher to another. Some teachers emphasize one phase of a subject while others stress another phase. In arithmetic, for example, one teacher may stress the correct process to be used while some other teacher may mark only on the answers; in English composition one teacher may emphasize only the plot or theme of the story whereas another may lower the mark because of errors in spelling, English usage, or poor penmanship. Teachers seem to gain certain impressions of students, good or bad, and these apparently color most of their judgments. The extensive use of the written-essay examination, the reliability and validity of which are always extremely doubtful and in most instances very low, and which experience and experiment have shown cannot be evaluated fairly by human minds, adds to the general confusion which exists in the methods used at present to evaluate the work of pupils and to assign to them marks which shall form the basis for promotion."/23

The value of marks and their real purposes are expressed by Dougherty:

"School marks serve four major purposes which are potentials of greater and more extensive influence than most teachers are aware. These purposes are as follows:

1. They furnish a system of records for administrative purposes of the school such as classification of pupils, promotion, and transfer to other schools.
2. They afford a means of transmitting information to parents concerning the quality of achievement and

23. Henry J. Otto, Elementary School Organization and Administration, (New York, D.Appleton-Century Co. 1934) pp. 228-229

progress of their children.

3. They furnish a means of providing the pupils with a periodic estimate of their achievement and progress.

4. They supply data upon which studies may be made of their relative efficiency of different methods of instruction employed by the same or different teachers."/24

Supervision. Since the retirement of the elementary supervisor in 1936, supervision of the elementary schools, in the subject matter fields, has been carried on by the principals of the schools. Since each elementary principal has two or more schools under his supervision, the effectiveness of the program is questionable, when so much of each principal's time is taken up with clerical and administrative matters.

The need for supervision is stressed by Barr, Burton, and Brueckner:

"1. Supervision is an accepted principle of administration in all difficult and complex undertakings.

2. Education is particularly complex and intricate, and furthermore, because it is carried on in minute divisions, classrooms, scattered throughout a community, there is particular need for a unifying and coordinating force. Brief tenure further complicates this aspect.

3. The academic and professional training of teachers in the United States, despite excellent progress, is still absurdly low. Until we have large percentages of highly trained, professionally minded individuals there will be need for supervision.

4. Education is developing so rapidly that teachers, even if trained, could not possibly keep abreast of current developments. Supervision is necessary to bring the new departures constantly into the situation. Constant adaptation is necessary also in objectives, curriculums,

24. James H. Dougherty, Frank H. Gorman, and Claude A. Phillips, Elementary School Organization and Management, (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1936) pp. 239-241

materials, plants, furniture, etc.

5. The great extension of educational effort and opportunity, particularly on the secondary level, necessitates supervision.

6. The teaching load, particularly in high school is so diverse, so unrelated to teachers' previous preparation, so heavy, that supervisory assistance is necessary."/25

Divided into three major functions with a number of related minor functions, the above authors define supervision:

"I. Studying the Teaching-Learning Situation

1. Critically Analyzing the Objectives of Education and of Supervision
2. Surveying the Products of Learning
3. Studying the Antecedents of Satisfactory and of Unsatisfactory Growth and Pupil Achievement
4. Studying the Interests, Capacities, and Work Habits of Pupils
5. Studying the Teacher at Work and Aiding Her to Study Herself
6. Studying the Curriculum in Operation
7. Studying the Materials of Instruction and the Socio-Physical Environment of Learning

II. Improving the Teaching-Learning Situation

1. Improving the Educational Objectives and the Curriculum
2. Improving the Interest, Application, and Work Habits of the Pupils
3. Improving the Teacher and Her Methods.
4. Improving the Materials of Instruction and the Socio-Physical Environment of Learning

III. Evaluating the Means, Methods, and Outcomes of Supervision

1. Discovering and Applying the Techniques of Evaluation
2. Evaluating the General Worth of Supervision
3. Evaluating the Results of Given Supervisory Plans
4. Evaluating Factors Limiting Instructional Outcomes
5. Evaluating and Improving the Personnel of Supervision"/26

25. A.S.Barr, William H.Burton, Leo J.Brueckner, Supervision, (New York, D.Appleton-Century Co., 1938) p. 27

26. Ibid., p. 21

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF DATA

The third chapter of this study is devoted to the presentation of data on the progress of pupils from Grade One in September of 1940 to Grade Six in September of 1945 in the eighteen elementary schools of Quincy, Massachusetts.

The detailed methods employed in obtaining the data have been explained previously. In presenting this data, the use of the phrase "decline in school enrollment" refers to decline in the number of pupils who entered in the classes of 1940, only.

Enrollment decline within buildings. That too few pupils actually complete the cycle of Grade One to Grade Six in six years within the buildings in which they entered in Quincy was very definitely shown when records of the sixth grade classes of September, 1945 were compared to the first grade classes of 1940. Of the 1107 pupils who enrolled in 1940, only 407 were in the sixth grades of the buildings in which they began their school careers, a decline of 700 pupils, or sixty-three per cent; two hundred ninety-nine pupils had moved from the city; one hundred sixty-one pupils had transferred among the schools of the city. Declines in enrollments of the classes entering in the eighteen elementary schools varied between 35 per cent and 88 per cent, with the greatest drop in all cases at the end of the first year.

TABLE I

YEARLY DECLINE IN ENROLLMENT BY SCHOOLS OF EACH
ENTERING CLASS OF 1940, FROM GRADE I TO
GRADE VI, FROM ALL CAUSES

SCHOOLS	ENROLLMENT BY GRADE AND YEAR						TOTAL DECLINE	PER CENT OF DECLINE
	1940 I	1941 II	1942 III	1943 IV	1944 V	1945 VI		
A	78	41	35	32	27	27	51	65
B	103	61	54	38	29	31	72	70
C	51	28	27	24	19	17	34	67
D	40	21	20	19	16	15	25	63
E	50	27	22	18	12	6	44	88
F	66	45	36	33	23	22	33	50
G	34	28	23	20	14	14	20	59
H	43	27	20	18	12	12	31	72
I	56	37	26	19	14	10	46	82
J	118	86	72	62	50	49	69	58
K	31	29	27	24	19	16	15	48
L	87	80	70	60	54	46	41	47
M	45	38	32	26	19	14	31	68
N	69	59	47	35	31	27	42	61
O	35	31	27	23	21	18	17	49
P	55	37	30	23	16	13	42	76
Q	76	53	42	37	31	25	51	67
R	70	68	63	60	50	45	25	36

TABLE II

CITY-WIDE TOTALS OF YEARLY DECLINE IN ENROLLMENTS
OF ENTERING CLASSES OF 1940, FROM ALL CAUSES,
FROM GRADES I TO VI

	YEARS AND GRADES						Totals	Per Cent
	I 1940	II 1941	III 1942	IV 1943	V 1944	VI 1945		
Within schools in which classes entered	1107	799	663	571	455	407	700	63
Including transfers within city	1107				494	613		55

Table I presents a year by year record of the decline in each class within the eighteen buildings, with the per cent of decline, due to all causes.

As depicted in Table II, totals for the city show that while sixty-three per cent of the pupils entering in 1940 did not appear in the 1945 records of the sixth grade within the buildings in which they enrolled, eighty-seven of the original entrants had at some time transferred to other schools within the city and were enrolled in the sixth grades of those schools. These additional records gave a city total of 494 pupils in the sixth grades who had entered with the original class in 1940, a loss due to all causes of 613 pupils, or 55 per cent.

Causes of decline in enrollments. Causes for the marked

TABLE III

CAUSES OF DECLINE IN ENROLLMENT OF THE ENTERING CLASSES OF 1940 WITHIN BUILDINGS IN WHICH THEY ENTERED, FROM GRADES I TO VI

School	Number in entering class	Retarded	Special Class	Physically Handicapped Class	Deceased	Moved from city	Transferred within city
A	78	26	6	1		13	9
B	103	45	5			26	15
C	51	15				15	11
D	40	8	1			9	11
E	50	29	6			16	10
F	66	11	2	1		25	7
G	34	6				14	2
H	43	19	1			11	10
I	56	25	3			10	20
J	118	25	2			34	17
K	31	4				11	1
L	87	17	2			19	9
M	45	18	1	1		15	3
N	69	22				19	13
O	35	4				11	2
P	55	26	3			19	6
Q	76	27	4			20	9
R	70	13				12	6
	1107	340	36	3	2	299	161

drop-off of members of the first grade classes as they progressed through the elementary grades within the buildings they entered have been classified into non-promotion, transfer into special classes, transfer into the class for physically handicapped children, death, transfer to other buildings within the

TABLE IV

LOCATION BY SCHOOLS OF THE FIRST GRADE
ENTRANTS OF 1940 IN SEPTEMBER, 1945,
THEIR NORMAL SIXTH YEAR

School	Number in entering class	Pupils in each grade in schools they entered				Special class	Physically handicapped class	Pupils in each grade in schools to which they transferred			
		III	IV	V	VI			III	IV	V	VI
A	78		7	15	27	6	1	1	2	2	6
B	103	1	12	13	31	5		1	3	4	0
C	51		2	6	17			4	1	4	6
D	40		1	2	15	1		1	1	4	6
E	50	3	4	5	6	6		1	1	4	5
F	66		2	7	22	2	1	1	1	2	4
G	34			4	14					2	2
H	43		2	6	12	1		1	3	6	
I	56	1	6	6	10	3		4	7	8	
J	118		2	14	49	2		1	6	10	
K	31			3	16					1	
L	87		6	5	46				3	6	
M	45	1	1	9	14	1	1	2	5	5	1
N	69		2	8	27					3	3
O	35			4	18					2	2
P	55	2	6	6	13	3		2	1	3	3
Q	76	1	3	14	25	4		1	3	5	5
R	70			7	45			1		1	5
		1107	9	56	134	407	36	3	1	27	46
											87

city, and moving from Quincy. Non-promotion was the greatest cause of enrollment decline; death, the least. The rather large turn-over of pupils was evidenced in the report of transfers both within and out of the city, a total of 460 pupils being so

affected.

The distribution of pupils among the six causes is shown in Table III.

Location of members in 1945. Of the 1107 original pupils, complete records were available for 808 pupils, the other 299 pupils having moved from the city before September, 1945. Exact locations of the 808 pupils in September, 1945, are shown in Table IV. No pupils were below the third grade level, nor none above the sixth grade; hence, although non-promotion was prevalent to a marked degree, the other prominent factor in progress problems, acceleration, was wholly lacking. Repeated non-promotion within the classes was accounted for by the large number of pupils in the fourth grades and a scattering in the third grades, evidence of repeating two and three times.

Number of cases of retardation. Study of non-promotions within the classes revealed that a very high percentage of non-promotion did exist in the Quincy elementary schools. Among the 1107 pupils whose records were studied, there were 490 cases of non-promotion distributed among 340 pupils. Complete records were available for only 808 pupils, the remaining 299 having transferred from the city between Grades I and VI. Thirty per cent of the pupils who entered Quincy first grades in 1940 were known to have suffered non-promotion at some time during their elementary years. The rate of non-promotion varied from eleven per cent to fifty-eight per cent among the eighteen schools.

TABLE V

NUMBER OF CASES OF RETARDATION BY SCHOOLS AND GRADES
AMONG THE PUPILS OF THE ENTERING CLASSES
OF 1940, FROM GRADES I TO VI

Schools	Grades					Total cases of non- promotion	Number of different pupils retarded	Per cent of pupils retarded
	I	II	III	IV	V			
A	19	3	8	3	2	35	26	33
B	39	24	14	6		83	45	43
C	10	8	2	2		22	15	29
D	8	3	3	1		15	8	20
E	22	11	5	2	1	41	29	58
F	3	6	2	2	1	14	11	16
G	4		1		1	6	6	17
H	8	7	3	4		22	19	44
I	20	11	9	4	1	45	25	44
J	11	5	7	4	1	28	25	21
K	1	1	1		2	5	4	12
L	7	8	5	4	1	25	17	19
M	8	4	6	4		22	18	40
N	12	7	7	4	2	32	22	31
O	1	2		1		4	4	11
P	17	13	7	2	4	43	26	47
Q	17	4	2	6	4	33	27	35
R	6	2	7			15	13	18
	213	119	89	49	20	490	340	30

The greatest amount of non-promotion took place on the primary level, the first grade taking the greatest toll with decreasing amounts through the fifth grade.

Table V shows the distribution of non-promotion among the elementary schools, the number of different pupils retarded, and the per cents of non-promotion.

Non-promotion among boys and girls. As usual, the number

TABLE VI

NUMBER OF CASES OF RETARDATION AMONG BOYS AND GIRLS
OF THE ENTERING CLASSES OF 1940, FROM
GRADES I TO VI; CITY TOTALS

	Grades					Total	Per Cent
	I	II	III	IV	V		
Boys	104	44	32	24	12	216	63.5
Girls	54	21	21	20	8	124	36.5
Totals	158	65	53	44	20	340	

of boys retarded greatly exceeded the number of girls. Of the 340 retarded pupils, there were 216 boys, and 124 girls, giving per cents of 63.5 and 36.5 respectively, of the total retardation. Figures are shown in Table VI.

Number of grades repeated. Repeated non-promotion existed among 38.3 per cent of the pupils who were retarded. Of the 340 pupils repeating grades, 109 repeated twice; 21 repeated three years.

Distributions among schools are shown in Table VII.

Range of intelligence quotients of repeaters. Intelligence quotients of pupils repeating ranged from 62 to 128, with medians among the different schools from 79 to 107. Of the 340 pupils retarded, 49 per cent had normal intelligence and above. The ranges within the individual schools are shown in Table VIII.

TABLE VII

NUMBER OF YEARS REPEATED BY THE 340 PUPILS
OF THE ENTERING CLASSES OF 1940, WHO WERE
KNOWN TO HAVE BEEN RETARDED

School	One Year	Two Years	Three Years	Total
A	17	9		26
B	16	20	9	45
C	8	7		15
D	3	4	1	8
E	19	8	2	29
F	8	3		11
G	6			6
H	16	3		19
I	10	10	5	25
J	22	3		25
K	3	1		4
L	9	8		17
M	13	4	1	18
N	12	10		22
O	4			4
P	12	11	3	26
Q	21	6		27
R	11	2		13
Totals	210	109	21	340
Per cents	61.7	32.1	6.2	

Entrance age distribution of retarded pupils. A breakdown of entrance ages of the 340 pupils who repeated, showed that 58.5 per cent of the pupils who failed at one time or another entered when between five years three months and five years eleven months; 39.2 per cent entered between six years and six years eleven months; 2.3 per cent entered when seven or over.

TABLE VIII

RANGE OF INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF THE
340 PUPILS OF THE ENTERING CLASSES OF 1940,
WHO WERE KNOWN TO BE RETARDED

School	60- 69	70- 79	80- 89	90- 99	100- 109	110- 119	120- 129	Median
A	1	7	7	6	4	1		87
B	2	11	24	8				84
C		2	1	4	7		1	100
D		1	5	1	1			86
E	3	5	9	11	1			87
F		2	2	2	4	1		92
G				5		1		95
H	3	2	9	3	2			85
I	5	8	11			1		79
J			1	9	14	1		102
K				1	2	1		105
L			1	3	12		1	107
M				8	3			91
N			2	10	8	2		99
O			1	2	1			95
P		7	10	7	1	1		86
Q	2	8	11	6				83
R		1	2	5	5			97
Totals	16	54	103	91	65	9	2	88

The relations existing between age of entrance and non-promotion in the different schools are shown in Table IX.

Pupils entered on tests of mental ability. Of the seventy-one pupils admitted to the first grades in 1940 on tests of mental ability, twenty-eight were either withdrawn during the first year or moved from the city so that records were complete for only forty-three pupils as shown in Table X.

Of the forty-three pupils, thirty-five progressed to the

TABLE IX

ENTRANCE AGE DISTRIBUTION AS OF SEPTEMBER 1, 1940
 OF THE 340 PUPILS OF THE ENTERING CLASSES OF 1940
 WHO WERE KNOWN TO BE RETARDED

School	Boys			Girls			Totals		
	5.3- 5.11	6.0- 6.11	7.0- over	5.3- 5.11	6.0- 6.11	7.0- over	5.3- 5.11	6.0- 6.11	7.0- over
A	7	10		5	4		12	14	
B	19	13	1	7	5		26	18	1
C	5	4		4	2		9	6	
D	3	1		3	1		6	2	
E	13	6		6	4		19	10	
F	6	2		3			9	2	
G	5			1			6		
H	5	5	2	5	1	1	10	6	3
I	9	6	1	6	2	1	15	8	2
J	11	4		9	1		20	5	
K	1			3			4		
L	9	4		3	1		12	5	
M	3	6		2	7		5	13	
N	4	7		3	8		7	15	
O		3			1			4	
P	8	8		6	4		14	12	
Q	10	6	2	7	2		17	8	2
R	4	3		4	2		8	5	
Totals	122	88	6	77	45	2	199	133	8
Per cents	35.9	25.8	1.8	22.7	13.2	.6	58.5	39.2	2.3

sixth grade in 1945, while eight were retarded in progress, a rate of retardation of 18.5 per cent. The thirty-five who progressed normally had a median mental age of six years four months on entrance in September, 1940. The eight who repeated

TABLE X

SUCCESS OF PUPILS TOO YOUNG TO ENTER CHRONOLOGICALLY, WHO ENTERED ON TESTS OF MENTAL ABILITY IN SEPTEMBER, 1940

School	Children entered	Retarded	Per cent of retardation	Normal progress	Moved from city	Withdrawn during first year
A	8			5	3	
B	11	3	27.2	4	2	2
C	4					
D	4					
E	3	1	25.	3	1	
F	3	1	33.3	2	1	
G	1					
H	1					
I	1					
J	1					
K	5					
L	2					
M	6					
N	6					
O	4					
P	5					
Q	4					
R	4	1	25.	2	4	1
	7					
Total	71	8	18.5	35	24	4

had a median mental age upon entrance of six years, shown in Table XI.

CHAPTER XI

TABLE XI

MENTAL AGE RANGE OF RETARDED AND SUCCESSFUL PUPILS
WHO, TOO YOUNG TO ENTER CHRONOLOGICALLY, ENTERED
ON TESTS OF MENTAL ABILITY IN SEPTEMBER, 1940

Mental Age	Retarded	Successful
5- 8	3	5
9		
10		5
11		1
6- 0	3	3
1		1
2	1	1
3		
4		2
5		1
6	1	4
7		2
8		6
9		
10		2
11		
7- 0		
1		
2		1
3		1
Medians	6-0	6-4

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This survey has dealt with the progress of one group of pupils from September of its entering year to September of its normally sixth year in the elementary schools of Quincy, Massachusetts. Evidence was gathered mainly to discover how many pupils actually completed the cycle from first grade to sixth grade in six years, and to discover what had happened to those who did not. Although no recommendations were made, the author did include a list of factors, together with research on each, to aid in clarification of the non-promotion practices of Quincy. In the research on each of the factors applicable to non-promotion in Quincy, the author attempted to bring out not only causes of retardation but also, either directly or indirectly, remedial measures that might help ease the rate of non-promotion in the elementary grades.

The results of the survey showed:

1. A small percentage of pupils actually progressed from Grade I to Grade VI in six years. Of 1107 pupils who entered Quincy first grades in 1940, only 494, or 45 per cent were in the sixth grades of Quincy in 1945.
2. A high rate of non-promotion did exist in the elementary grades of Quincy. Of the 1107 pupils whose records were studied, 340, of 30 per cent were known to have been retarded at

least once. Since records for 299 pupils were incomplete, the total per cent of pupils retarded might have been higher.

3. There was a heavy turnover in classes due to transferring among schools and moving from the city. Of the 1107 pupils, 299 or 27 per cent moved from the city. In addition, 161 pupils or 14 per cent, transferred among the schools of Quincy.

4. There was a large amount of retardation in the group that, although too young to meet chronological age requirements, were allowed to enter the first grades on tests of mental ability. Of 71 pupils admitted on tests, 35 progressed normally to the sixth grade, with 8 or 18 per cent being retarded, the remainder either moving from the city or withdrawing.

5. Boys in the elementary grades were retarded much more frequently than girls. Of 534 girls, 124 or 23.2 per cent, were known to be retarded; of 573 boys, 216 or 37.6 per cent were known to be retarded.

6. The median intelligence quotients of all pupils in the city who were retarded was 88. The medians within the individual schools ranged from 79 to 107.

7. Of the pupils who entered on tests of mental ability, those who were retarded had a median mental age of six years; those successful, six years four months.

8. Of the pupils who were still in the city but not in the sixth grade, many were found to be two and three years re-

tarded. Of the 340 retarded pupils, 109 or 32 per cent, repeated twice; 21 or 6 per cent, repeated three times.

9. The age distribution of all pupils known to be retarded showed that most retardation was found in the youngest age group. Of the 340 cases of non-promotion, 199 were among pupils who were between five years three months and five years eleven months upon entrance -- 58.5 per cent.

10. There was a wide variation in use of non-promotion practices among schools, the difference in rate being as high as 47 per cent.

11. The first grade had a larger percentage of repeaters than the other grades -- 46.4 per cent of the 340 repeaters having been retarded there.

From the summary of the findings, the following general conclusions were reached:

1. The rate of non-promotion in the selected group was so high that the whole problem should be investigated to make better learning conditions for pupils, to ease the financial burden to the city, and to make happier relations between teachers and pupils.

2. Retardation was so great among the under-aged pupils and those who entered first grade on tests of mental ability that steps should be taken to investigate the practicability of raising entrance requirements and/or establishing methods of meeting community and educational needs of these younger children.

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3. A study of the curriculum should be made with a view of meeting the differences found among schools and individuals.

4. Cumulative records to afford better guidance of pupils and to better summarize progress of pupils should be installed.

In no way did the writer in this survey intend criticism of the Quincy School Department, but rather, from the findings, hoped that some of the weaknesses within the system would be uncovered for possible improvement for the betterment of pupils.

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